

## Lecture 17

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## 1 Derandomization of algorithms with one-sided error

This lecture describes a means of reducing the number of random bits required to achieve exponentially low error using a randomized algorithm with a one-sided error. Specifically, we are interested in algorithms  $A$  intended to determine membership in a language  $L$ , for which:

- If  $x \in L$ , then  $\Pr(A(x) \text{ says } x \notin L) \leq \frac{1}{100}$ .
- If  $x \notin L$ , then  $\Pr(A(x) \text{ says } x \in L) = 0$ .

Say that  $A$  uses at most  $r$  random bits for all inputs of size at most  $n$ . To get a (one-sided) error of at most  $2^{-k}$ , we may take a few approaches:

Approach	Number of random bits required
Run $A$ $O(k)$ times	$O(kr)$
Run $A$ $O(k)$ times using pairwise-independent random bits	$O(k+r)$
Use random walks on graphs to choose random bits (the technique described in this lecture)	$r + O(k)$

## 2 Using random walks to reduce randomness

For the algorithm in this lecture, we use a  $d$ -regular (for a constant  $d$ ), connected non-bipartite graph  $G$  with  $2^r$  nodes numbered from 0 to  $2^r - 1$ . We order the eigenvalues  $\lambda$  of the transition matrix  $P$  for a random walk on  $G$  so that  $|\lambda_1| \geq |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n|$ . Recall from last lecture that  $\lambda_1 \leq 1$ , a claim we stated without proving. Also, we know from last lecture that  $|\lambda_2| \leq \frac{1}{10}$ , since  $G$  is  $d$ -regular and  $\bar{\Pi}$  is uniform.

Our algorithm operates as follows on an input  $x$ :

1. Pick a random starting node  $w$  in  $G$ .
2. Run  $A(x)$  using the bits in  $w$  for the random bits.
3. Do  $k$  times:
  - (a) Take a random step according to the transition matrix  $P$ .
  - (b) Set  $w$  to be the number of the current node.
  - (c) Run  $A(x)$  using the bits in  $w$  for the random bits.
4. If  $A$  ever outputs  $x \in L$ , output  $x \in L$ ; otherwise, output  $x \notin L$ .

### 3 Proof of the algorithm's correctness

#### 3.1 Initial observation

For a fixed  $x \in L$ , let  $B$  be  $\{w | A(x) \text{ outputs } "x \notin L" \text{ using the bits in } w \text{ for the random bits}\}$ . This is the “bad set” of random bits. Our algorithm will fail precisely when the random walk stays entirely in the set  $B$ . Because  $A$  has one-sided error, we know that  $|B| \leq \frac{2^r}{100}$ .

Let  $N$  be the diagonal matrix defined so that along the main diagonal,  $N_{w,w} = \begin{cases} 1, & w \in B \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ . Note that  $N$  will look something like this:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & & & \\ & 0 & & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & & \\ & & & 0 & & & \\ & & & & 0 & & \\ & & & & & 0 & \\ & & & & & & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

If we have a distribution  $p$  of nodes in  $G$ , the product  $pN$  zeroes out any of the “good nodes”, that is, the indices  $w$  that are witnesses to  $x$ 's membership in  $L$ . More precisely,  $(pN)_w = \begin{cases} p_w, & w \in B \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ . It follows that  $|pN|_1$  (also denoted  $|pN|$ ) is equal to  $Pr_{w \in p}(w \in B)$  (that is,  $|pN|$  is the probability that a value  $w$  selected according to the distribution  $p$  is in  $B$ ). Also, observe that

$$|pNPN| = Pr_{w \in p}(w \in B \text{ and a node that is one random step from } w \text{ is in } B)$$

Continuing the pattern,

$$|pN \underbrace{PNPN \dots PN}_k| = Pr_{w \in p}(w \in B \text{ and each node in a random walk of } k \text{ steps from } w \text{ is in } B)$$

This observation serves as a starting point for our proof of correctness.

#### 3.2 Lemma

Our proof makes use of the following lemma:  $\forall \Pi, \|\Pi PN\|_2 \leq \frac{1}{5} \|\Pi\|_2$ . (Note that  $\|X\|_2$  is also denoted  $\|X\|$ .) From this, it easily follows that  $\forall \Pi, k \geq 0, \|\Pi(PN)^k\| \leq (\frac{1}{5})^k \|\Pi\|$ .

#### 3.3 How the lemma proves the algorithm's correctness

Let  $p_0$  be the uniform distribution over all nodes, the initial distribution in the random walk. We have that  $Pr(\text{all } k \text{ calls to } A \text{ are bad}) = |p_0 N \underbrace{PNPN \dots PN}_k| \leq |p_0 (PN)^k|$ . Using the fact that the

$L_1$  norm of an  $n$ -dimensional vector is at most  $\sqrt{n}$  times the  $L_2$  norm of the vector, we continue with  $|p_0 (PN)^k| \leq \sqrt{2^r} \|p_0 (PN)^k\| \leq \sqrt{2^r} \|p_0\| (\frac{1}{5})^k$ . In addition, we know that  $\|p_0\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{2^r} (\frac{1}{2^r})^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2^r}}$ , so we may conclude by observing  $\sqrt{2^r} \|p_0\| (\frac{1}{5})^k \leq (\frac{1}{5})^k \leq 2^{-k}$ .

### 3.4 Proof of the lemma

Let  $v_i$  are eigenvectors of  $P$  with magnitude 1 with associated eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  so that  $|\lambda_1| \geq |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_{2^r}|$ . Take some distribution  $\Pi$ . Recall from last lecture that eigenvectors of a transition matrix form an orthonormal basis. So we can write  $\Pi$  as  $\sum_{i=1}^{2^r} \alpha_i v_i$ . We have that  $\|\Pi P N\| = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{2^r} \alpha_i v_i P N \right\| = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{2^r} \alpha_i \lambda_i v_i N \right\|$ . Using Cauchy-Schwartz, we further have that  $\left\| \sum_{i=1}^{2^r} \alpha_i \lambda_i v_i N \right\| \leq \|\alpha_1 \lambda_1 v_1 N\| + \left\| \sum_{i=2}^{2^r} \alpha_i \lambda_i v_i N \right\|$ . Call the expression  $\|\alpha_1 \lambda_1 v_1 N\|$  (1) and the expression  $\left\| \sum_{i=2}^{2^r} \alpha_i \lambda_i v_i N \right\|$  (2). We will show that both (1) and (2) are at most  $\frac{1}{10} \|\Pi\|$ , from which it follows that their sum is at most  $\frac{1}{5} \|\Pi\|$ , proving the lemma.

We know that  $|\lambda_1| = 1$  and  $v_1 = \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^r}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^r}}, \dots, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^r}} \right)$ . So we may evaluate expression (1) as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\alpha_1 \lambda_1 v_1 N\| &= \|\alpha_1 v_1 N\| = |\alpha_1| \cdot \|v_1 N\| = |\alpha_1| \sqrt{\sum_{i \in B} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^r}} \right)^2} \\ &= |\alpha_1| \sqrt{\frac{|B|}{2^r}} \leq \frac{|\alpha_1|}{10} \leq \frac{1}{10} \|\Pi\|. \end{aligned}$$

For expression (2), using the fact that  $\frac{1}{10} \geq |\lambda_2| \geq |\lambda_3| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_{2^r}|$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left\| \sum_{i=2}^{2^r} \alpha_i \lambda_i v_i N \right\| &\leq \\ \left\| \sum_{i=2}^{2^r} \alpha_i \lambda_i v_i \right\| &\leq \\ \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{2^r} (\alpha_i \lambda_i)^2} &\leq \\ \sqrt{\frac{1}{100} \sum_{i=1}^{2^r} \alpha_i^2} &\leq \\ \frac{1}{10} \|\Pi\| & \end{aligned}$$

## 4 Derandomizing $S$ - $T$ connectivity (Reingold)

Recall from last lecture that in the problem of  $S$ - $T$  connectivity, we want to determine whether two nodes  $S$  and  $T$  of an undirected graph  $G$  are connected. In this lecture, we consider a logarithmic-space algorithm for computing  $S$ - $T$  connectivity in an easy case.

We will consider  $(N, D, \lambda)$ -graphs  $G$ . A  $(N, D, \lambda)$ -graph has

- $N$  nodes
- Constant degree  $D$
- Second-largest absolute value of an eigenvalue  $|\lambda_2|$  of the transition matrix at most  $\lambda$

To construct our algorithm, we use two well-known facts. Our first well-known fact (Tanner, Alon-Milman) stipulates

$$\forall \lambda < 1, \exists \varepsilon > 0 \text{ such that } \forall (N, D, \lambda)\text{-graphs } G, \forall S \text{ with } |S| \leq \frac{N}{2}, |\Gamma(S)| \geq (1 + \varepsilon)|S|.$$

In other words,  $(N, D, \lambda)$ -graphs are expanders. (Here,  $\Gamma(S)$  is defined to be the union of all nodes in  $S$  and nodes adjacent to a node in  $S$ .)

A second well known fact is a corollary of this first fact. It holds that  $(N, D, \lambda)$ -graphs have a diameter of at most  $O(\log N)$ . We prove this by considering two nodes  $S$  and  $T$  from a  $(N, D, \lambda)$ -graph  $G$ . Let  $\varepsilon$  be some constant implied by the preceding fact. Say we start with the node  $S$ , then add the set of nodes adjacent to  $S$ , then add the set of nodes adjacent to one of these nodes, and so on. At each iteration of this procedure, we have at least  $1 + \varepsilon$  times as many nodes as in the previous iteration. Thus, after at most  $\log_{(1+\varepsilon)} \frac{N}{2}$  iterations, we will have reached at least  $\frac{N}{2}$  nodes. Similarly, by taking at most  $\log_{(1+\varepsilon)} \frac{N}{2}$  steps from  $T$ , we can reach at least  $\frac{N}{2}$  nodes. So there must be some node within  $\log_{(1+\varepsilon)} \frac{N}{2} = O(\log N)$  steps of both  $S$  and  $T$ . (Actually, this is not completely correct, as they could be two disjoint sets of  $\frac{N}{2}$  nodes. This can be fixed without much difficulty.)

Using this, the following logarithmic-space algorithm will determine  $S$ - $T$  connectivity in a  $(N, D, \lambda)$ -graph: enumerate all paths of length at most  $l = O(\log N)$  starting at  $S$ , and if a path ever reaches  $T$ , output “connected”; otherwise, output “not connected”. The algorithm uses  $O(l \log D) = O(\log D \log N)$  space.

This algorithm is only useful for an easy type of graph, but it will be built on in the next lecture.